

In vitro observations on the infection of *Meloidogyne incognita* eggs by the zoosporic fungus *Catenaria anguillulae* Sorokin

Urs WYSS *, Britta VOSS ** and Hans-Börje JANSSON ***

* Institut für Phytopathologie, Universität Kiel, Hermann-Rodewald-Str. 9, 2300 Kiel 1, Germany;

** Zentrum für Molekulare Neurobiologie, Universitätskrankenhaus Eppendorf, Martinistr. 52, 2000 Hamburg 20, Germany, and

*** Department of Microbial Ecology, University of Lund, Helgonavägen 5, 223 62 Lund, Sweden.

Accepted for publication 14 December 1990.

Summary — Zoospores of the chytridiomycetous fungus *Catenaria anguillulae*, obtained from axenic cultures on nutrient media, were added to *Meloidogyne incognita* eggs at different stages of embryonic development in diluted salt solution and studied at 25 °C, using video-enhanced light microscopy. Zoospores moved around at random for many hours without becoming attached to the eggs. However, once a zoospore encysted by coincidence and germinated in such a way that the germ tube penetrated the lipid layer, other zoospores were suddenly attracted to chemotactic substances leaking out. The embryo was killed within a few minutes following mass aggregation and encystment of the zoospores. On eggs with fully developed and motile second stage juveniles, zoospore attraction and encystment occurred in two phases, first after a zoospore had penetrated the lipid layer of the egg and second immediately after the juvenile had been killed within about one hour. Juveniles ready to hatch were not killed and those that had hatched were never attacked.

Résumé — *Observations in vitro sur l'infestation des œufs de Meloidogyne incognita par les zoospores du champignon Catenaria anguillulae Sorokin* — Des zoospores du champignon *Catenaria anguillulae* (Chytridiales) provenant de culture axénique sur milieu nutritif sont mises en présence d'œufs de *Meloidogyne incognita* à différents stades de développement embryonnaire dans une solution saline diluée maintenue à 25 °C. Les observations sont réalisées en microscopie optique assistée d'une vidéo à haute définition. Les zoospores se déplacent au hasard pendant plusieurs heures sans s'attacher aux œufs. Cependant, dès qu'une zoospore s'enkyste au contact d'un œuf et produit un tube germinatif qui pénètre dans la couche lipidique de celui-ci, d'autres zoospores sont rapidement attirées sous l'influence de substances chimotactiques diffusant dans le milieu. L'embryon est tué dans les quelques minutes qui suivent l'aggrégation en masse et l'enkystement des zoospores. Dans le cas d'œufs contenant des juvéniles de deuxième stade totalement formés et mobiles, l'attraction des zoospores et leur enkystement ont lieu en deux phases : la première après que la zoospore ait pénétré dans la couche lipidique de l'œuf et la seconde immédiatement après que le juvénile ait été tué, ce qui dure une heure environ. Les juvéniles sur le point de sortir de l'œuf et ceux déjà libérés ne sont jamais attaqués.

Key-words : Nematode parasitic fungi, *Meloidogyne*, *Catenaria*.

The chytridiomycetous fungus *Catenaria anguillulae* Sorokin is a parasite of a variety of nematode species (e.g. Stirling & Platzer, 1978; Esser & Schubert, 1983; Jaffee, 1986). All published studies on this fungus have dealt with its infection of vermiform nematode stages. There are a few reports on parasitism of eggs of other animals, e.g. midges and trematodes by *Catenaria* spp. (e.g. Butler, 1928; Buckley & Clapham, 1929; Martin, 1975, 1978), but none on the parasitism of nematode eggs. Another species, *C. auxiliaris*, is a well known parasite of female cyst nematodes (e.g. Tribe, 1977). *C. anguillulae* infects nematodes with its uniflagellate zoospores that are attracted to compounds exuded from natural openings of nematodes (e.g. Barron, 1977). After adhesion and encystment, infection of the animal takes place, leading to the production of zoosporangia and zoospores. Generally the parasitic life cycle of the fungus is completed within 24 hours. In the current study details of the *in vitro* infection of eggs of the root knot nematode, *Meloidogyne incognita*, are presented.

Materials and methods

Catenaria anguillulae isolate C 11/1 was isolated with *Meloidogyne incognita* as bait from a Florida soil, as described elsewhere (Voss & Wyss, 1990). It was grown axenically on corn meal agar (CMA, Difco) at 25 ± 1 °C in the dark and subcultured monthly. Zoospores were obtained by flooding a 2-3 week old culture (9 cm Petri dish) with 5 ml of diluted salt solution (Machlis, 1953). They were then concentrated to about 1×10^6 per ml by centrifugation at 600 g for 10 min.

M. incognita was reared monoxenically on cucumber roots (*Cucumis sativus* cv. Hoffmanns Vollendung) on B 5 agar (Huettel & Rebois, 1985). Egg masses were removed by hand and treated with 10 % sodium hypochlorite (about 1 % active chlorine) for 3 min (Voss, 1988). After several washings in sterile water the eggs were transferred to the zoospore suspension in a total volume of 2 ml (approx. 5×10^5 spores and

500 eggs/ml) in 15 ml conical centrifuge tubes in an upright position.

After the eggs had settled, 10 µl fluid were removed from the bottom of the tubes and pipetted onto the center of a 8 cm diameter cover slip (0.13 mm thick), surrounded by a 3 cm rectangle of cut glass slides (1 mm thick), smeared at the sides, top and bottom with a thin layer of vaseline. A second identical cover slip was placed on the rectangle so that it just touched the drop. The observation chamber thus formed was immediately inverted. Most eggs settled to the bottom of the fluid column, but some stayed just below the coverslip. Parasitism of these eggs by zoospores was then observed at high magnification, using high resolution video-enhanced contrast light microscopy (Wyss & Zunke, 1986). The observation chambers allowed continuous observation for several days until all eggs were parasitized. The temperature of the microscope stage was kept constant at $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$.

Results

Zoospores of *C. anguillulae* moved around at random for many hours, sometimes for up to two days, without adhering to the egg's surface. When they adhered by coincidence, they retracted their flagellum, encysted and started to germinate. The germ tube was not always directed towards the egg's surface and hence grew away from it (Fig. 1 A, B). Infection was also not successful when the germ tube had penetrated the chitinous layer of the eggshell but then grew along the lipid layer and reemerged through the eggshell (Fig. 1 C, D). In most cases, however, zoospore encystment resulted in infection. The chitinous layer of the eggshell was penetrated within a few minutes, but the lipid layer opposed considerable resistance, especially at the poles, where it was thickest (Fig. 1 E). The germ tube started to swell at the point of contact with this layer (Fig. 1 F) and up to 40 min elapsed until it was penetrated, as indicated by the attraction of other zoospores (Fig. 1 G, H). Released chemotactic substances caused hundreds of zoospores to aggregate at the infection site. Many of them encysted, forming a cluster (Fig. 1 I) and the embryo was killed within 3–4 min, with its contents becoming rapidly disorganized (Fig. 1 J–L).

Zoospore attraction decreased after about 15 min, but quite often a second attraction phase occurred within one hour, with zoospores aggregating on different sites along the eggshell that enclosed the dead embryo. But even when hundreds of zoospores swarmed around the source of stimulation, none of them was seen to adhere to the surface of an immediately adjacent unaffected egg, as shown in Fig. 2 A. Egg No. 2 was here attacked 9 h later, at a time when the parasitized egg No. 1 was already packed with differentiating zoosporangia (Fig. 2 B), out of which evacuation tubes started to emerge 2 h later (Fig. 2 C).

In mature eggs, containing moving J2, the infection process, leading to the death of the J2, was different. Again a single penetrating spore (Fig. 2 D, E) was able to evoke an initial attack by many zoospores that were attracted to chemotactic substances leaking out after the lipid layer had been injured. This layer was now usually thinner than in embryonating eggs and hence offered less resistance. The aggregating zoospores formed a cluster of encysted zoospores (Fig. 2 F), but the juvenile was not quickly killed. It continued to move for up to about 80 min while germ tubes of the aggregated spores grew inside the egg (Fig. 2 G, H). Cuticle penetration by the fungus was never observed, but movement of the juvenile gradually slowed down. As the first signs of J2 disintegration near the site of infection became vaguely visible, a second wave of zoospore attraction was initiated. This wave was extremely strong so that the egg was sometimes tossed around by the swarm of attracted zoospores, with hundreds finally encysting around the egg (Fig. 2 I, J).

Before encystment the zoospores squeezed themselves as usual into the aggregation clusters or moved away again after a few seconds. Forward progression along the surface of the egg was typically in an amoeboid fashion (Fig. 2 K) and once a suitable site for encystment was found, the flagellum was retracted within 20 seconds by a clockwise rotation of the protoplast. A short peg on the encysted zoospores indicated the site of flagellum retraction (Fig. 2 L).

Eggs containing juveniles ready to hatch, were also attacked by many zoospores in the same manner. However, in nearly all cases the juveniles survived, even when many hours elapsed until they finally ruptured the egg shell. The long germ tubes that grew out of the encysted zoospores (Fig. 3 A) did not affect the nematodes. Fig. 3 B shows an empty eggshell with attached empty zoospores and their proliferating germ tubes and rhizoids. Hatched J2 were never attacked, even when the density of zoospores moving around was very high.

Within 3 h after the lethal infection of embryos or juveniles, a thallus with zoosporangial primordia was clearly visible (Fig. 3 C). The zoosporangia became gradually filled with lipid-like globules that increased in size (Fig. 3 D–F). The first evacuation tubes were formed 10 to 12 h after infection (Fig. 3 G). Fig. 3 H shows a parasitized egg, 13 h after the initial zoospore attack. Eggs were then packed with zoosporangia that had formed evacuation tubes and were in the process of zoospore differentiation. Up to about 500 tubes / egg were counted. The number of zoospores produced varied between 8 and 59, depending on the size of the zoosporangium (Fig. 3 I); these values based on only a few observations.

Before zoospore differentiation the lipid-like globules decreased in size and vacuoles were formed, which disappeared again about 30 min prior to the release of the zoospores. Final differentiation was very rapid

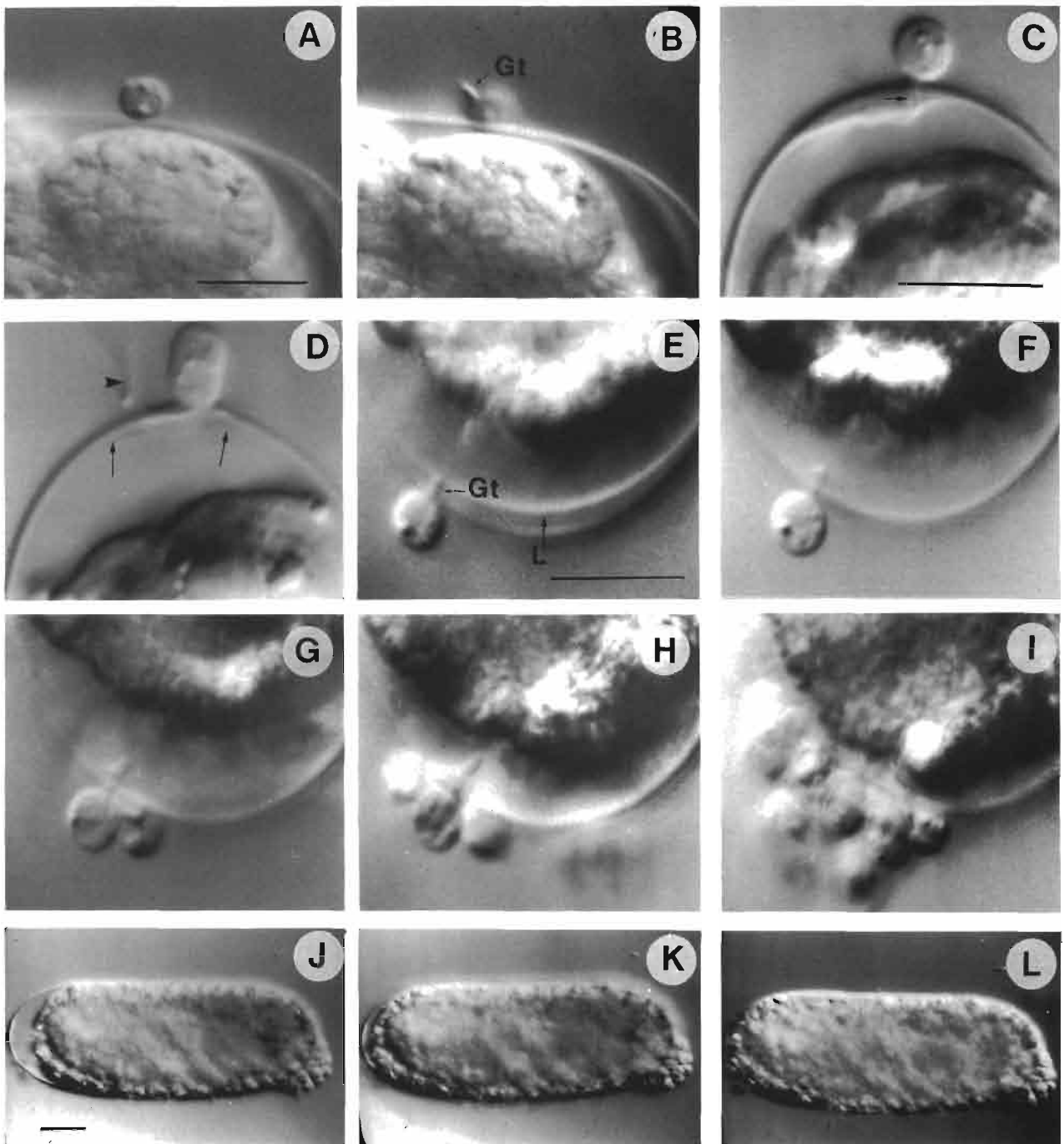


Fig. 1. *Catenaria anguillulae* attacking embryonating eggs of *Meloidogyne incognita*. A : Encysted zoospore on eggshell; B : Germ tube (Gt) growing away, 11 min after A; C : Germ tube (arrow) growing along lipid layer; D : Germ tube (arrowhead) reemerged through chitinous layer of eggshell, 5 h after C, only part of germ tube shown; lipid layer of eggshell marked by arrows; E : Germ tube (Gt) of encysted zoospore in contact with lipid layer (L) of an egg with embryo in gastrula stage; F : 17 min after E, tip of germ tube swollen; G : A second zoospore has encysted, 13 min after F; H : Four encysted zoospores at infection site, 7 min after G; I : Zoospores now aggregating at infection site, 3 min after H; J : Same egg, 4 min after I; K : Disintegrated embryo, 6 min after J; L : Disintegrated embryo, 1 min after K (Bars = 10 μ m).

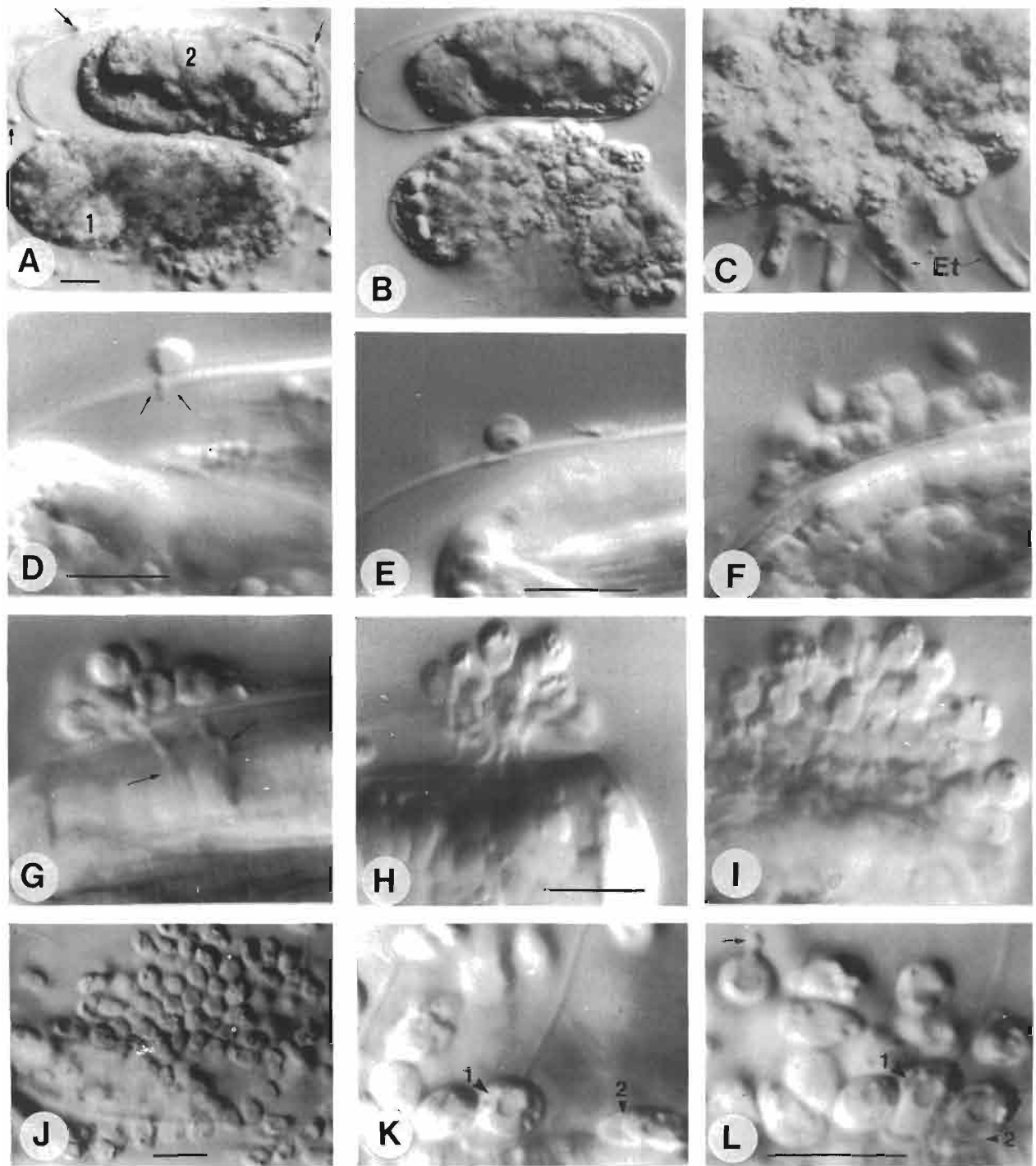


Fig. 2. *Catenaria anguillulae* attacking eggs of *Meloidogyne incognita*, with embryo still developing (A-C) and with developed J2-juveniles (D-L) — A : Disintegrated egg (No. 1), 45 min after massive zoospore attack. Egg. No. 2, in gastrula stage, surrounded by swarm of zoospores, with those marked by arrow not encysting; B : Egg No. 1 now packed with differentiating zoosporangia. Egg No. 2 unaffected, in early tadpole stage, 8 h 30 min after A; C : Parasitized egg No. 1 enlarged, with evacuation tubes (Et) growing out, 2 h 30 min after B; D : Zoospore penetrating eggshell, lipid layer indented (arrows) at point of contact with germ tube; E : Another egg, in same stage as D, i.e. with J2 moving inside egg. Encysted zoospore penetrating egg shell; F : Cluster of aggregating and encysting zoospores, 10 min after E; G : Germ tubes (arrows) growing inside egg, 40 min after F; J2 still moving; H : Another egg, in same stage as G. Cluster of germ tubes inside egg, with J2 still moving; I : Cluster of encysted zoospores, 50 min after H, dead juvenile in process of disintegration; J : Another egg, in similar stage as I, massive aggregation and encystment of zoospores; K : Same egg, zoospores No. 1 and 2 moving in an amoeboid fashion along egg shell; L : 40 s later; No. 2 ready to encyst next to Nr. 1. Arrow points to peg of encysted zoospore, few seconds after flagellum retraction (Bars = 10 μ m).

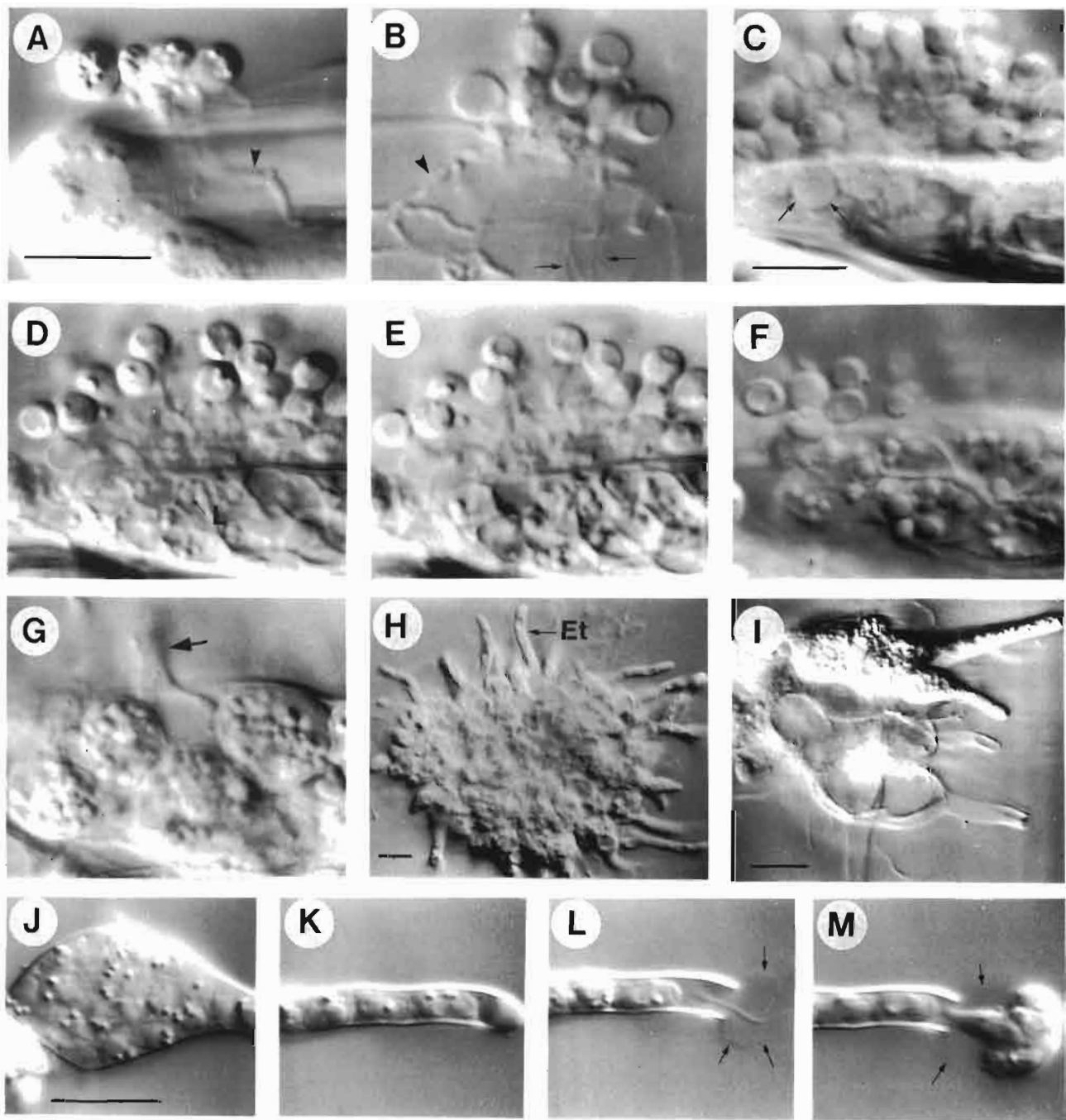


Fig. 3. *Catenaria anguillulae* attacking eggs of *Meloidogyne incognita*. A : Germinated zoospores on eggshell of J2 ready to hatch. One of long germ tubes marked by pointer; B : Another egg, J2 now hatched; germ tubes (arrowhead) and rhizoids (arrows) from cluster of encysted zoospores in empty egg. — C-G : Zoosporangium differentiation in a dead J2 inside egg. — C : 3 h after massive zoospore aggregation and encystment; one of zoosporangium primordia marked by arrows; D : Several encysted zoospores now empty, zoosporangium primordia with lipid-like globules, 80 min after C; E : Lipid-like globules in zoosporangia larger, 45 min after D; F : Lipid-like globules more enlarged, 145 min after E; G : First evacuation tube (pointer) formed, 4 h after F; H : Parasitized egg with numerous evacuation tubes, ca 13 h after initial zoospore attack; I : Empty and still filled zoosporangia, ca 14 h after initial zoospore attack; J : Zoosporangium with zoospores in final process of differentiation; K : Differentiated zoospores forced forward through evacuation tube, 102 s after J; L : Terminal membrane of tube (arrows) being expanded, 55 s after K; M : Expanding membrane (arrows) engulfs zoospores before final release, 4 s after L (Bars = 10 μm).

(Fig. 3 J, K); within 4 min after the outlines of the zoospores had become faintly visible they were fully developed, moved around vigorously and were thus forced forward through the evacuation tube. The membrane covering the terminal end of the tube became expanded by the pressure (Fig. 3 L) and engulfed the first zoospores (Fig. 3 M) before it was ruptured. The released zoospores moved around for hours before they encysted by coincidence on yet unparasitized eggs and also on the cover slip of the observation chamber. Within three days nearly all eggs were thus attacked and parasitized.

Discussion

Intact and also physiologically disordered eggs of *M. incognita* obviously do not exude substances that attract the zoospores of *C. anguillulae*. The spores were observed to encyst on the eggshell by coincidence, in a similar way as on many occasions on the cover slip of the observation chamber, where they germinated and produced zoosporangia. In vermiform nematodes attraction of zoospores to the mouth, excretory pore, anus or other natural openings has been observed (e.g. Boosalis & Mankau, 1965; Sayre & Keeley, 1969; Barron, 1977; Hashem, 1988) and there appears to be a selectivity among different isolates of *C. anguillulae* in that some are mainly attracted to the mouth while others prefer different natural openings (Jansson, unpubl.). Direct penetration of the nematode's cuticle has also been described (Jaffee, 1986).

To our knowledge, this report is the first that describes in detail infection of nematode eggs by *C. anguillulae*. Although a correlation between the concentration of sodium hypochlorite used to separate the eggs from egg masses and rate of parasitism became evident in a previous study (Voss & Wyss, 1990), NaOCl itself did not influence the inherent potential of *C. anguillulae* to infect the eggs. Untreated eggs of *Heterodera schachtii* were also parasitized, though at a lesser rate than treated *M. incognita* eggs (Voss & Wyss, 1990). Short treatment of *M. javanica* and *M. incognita* egg masses with NaOCl does not cause changes in the eggshell ultrastructure or egg physiology (Bird & McClure, 1976) and we never observed any influence on embryonic development.

After a zoospore had encysted on the eggshell, chemotropism, or directed growth of the germ tube, reported for many zoosporic fungi (e.g. Manavathu & Thomas, 1985; Mitchell & Deacon, 1986), was not observed. Quite often the germ tube grew away from the egg which thus was not infected. However, when the germ tube grew perpendicular to the eggshell, the chitinous layer was penetrated within a few minutes. Voss (1988) did not observe chitinolytic activities for any of the *C. anguillulae* isolates tested on chitin agar, but according to Ulken (1977) the fungus can be grown on crude

chitin. Although chitinase appears to be important in the infection process, a direct correlation between the level of chitinase activity and level of egg infection by other parasitic fungi does not exist (Dackmann *et al.*, 1989).

In embryonic eggs the lipid layer opposed considerable resistance to fungal penetration, especially at the poles of the egg, where it is thickest. In mature eggs with developed J2, moving around inside the egg, less time was required for infection, probably because the lipid layer was already weakened by enzymes released from the J2 prior to hatching. In *M. incognita* the lipid layer appears to break down just before hatching (Bird, 1968) and according to Perry (1989) lipase activity from eggs of *M. javanica* was correlated with the percentage of eggs that hatched. Therefore, it seems probable that penetration of the lipid layer was due mainly to mechanical pressure.

Whenever the barrier of the lipid layer in eggs of *M. incognita* was overcome by a single germinating *C. anguillulae* spore, the fate of the embryo or juvenile was invariably detrimental as attractive substances leaking out evoked a strong chemotactic response in zoospores swimming around. They formed large aggregates at the infection site, as already described by many authors for the infection process of vermiform nematodes (e.g. Sayre & Keeley, 1969; Esser & Ridings, 1973; Barron, 1977; Esser & Schubert, 1983; Jaffee, 1986).

The rapid death of the embryo within a few minutes after the zoospores had formed aggregation clusters strongly suggests that the fungus produces toxins or enzymes capable of rapidly destroying it. In mature eggs the juveniles were not immediately affected by these substances as death, accompanied by a second wave of zoospore attraction, occurred with considerable delay. Possibly the action of the toxins was delayed by the barrier of the developed cuticle, which in still living juveniles was never seen to be penetrated by the fungus. The absence of a functional lipid layer in those eggs in which the J2 were ready to hatch may have led to a decrease of the toxin concentration inside the egg so that these J2 were not affected. It may also be possible that the toxin was degraded by enzymes released from the J2 in the process of hatching. Those that had hatched were never infected, even when exposed to a very high density of swarming zoospores.

Once an embryo or a juvenile within an egg was killed, the germ tubes quickly developed into a thallus, mainly containing primordial zoosporangia. Zoospore aggregation enabled up to about 500 zoosporangia to differentiate within one single egg, each giving rise to many zoospores. In this way thousands of new zoospores were released from an egg within 14–16 hours after it had been attacked coincidentally by a single spore. The aggregation phenomena of the zoospores, at first instance apparently a waste, can be considered an important factor in the survival strategies of the fungus. The strong aggregation of zoospores may, at least partly, be

due to auto-aggregation. In these cases the first encysting zoospores signal chemotactically to the neighbouring spores. Such a mechanism has been described in *Achlya heterosexualis* by Thomas and Peterson (1990).

Acknowledgments

We thank Bayer AG, Pflanzenschutzzentrum Monheim, for financial support of this study, Dr. R. P. Esser (USA) for providing a Florida soil with *Catenaria anguillulae* and Mrs. M. Gagy for technical assistance.

References

- BARRON, G. L. (1977). *The nematode-destroying fungi*. Topics in Mycobiology No. 1. Guelph, Ontario, Canadian Biological Publications Ltd, 140 p.
- BIRD, A. F. (1968). Changes associated with parasitism in nematodes. III. Ultrastructure of the egg shell, larval cuticle, and contents of the subventral oesophageal glands in *Meloidogyne javanica*, with some observations on hatching. *J. Parasit.*, 54 : 457-489.
- BIRD, A. F. & McCLURE, M. A. (1976). The tylenchid (Nematoda) egg shell : structure, composition and permeability. *Parasitology*, 72 : 19-28.
- BOOSALIS, M. G. & MANKAU, R. (1965). Parasitism and predation of soil microorganisms. In : Baker, K. F. & Snyder, W. C. (Eds). *Ecology of Soil-borne Pathogens*. Berkeley, University of California Press : 374-391.
- BUCKLEY, J. J. C. & CLAPHAM, P. A. (1929). The invasion of helminth eggs by chytridiacean fungi. *J. Helminth.*, 7 : 1-14.
- BUTLER, E. J. (1928). Morphology of the chytridiacean fungus, *Catenaria anguillulae*, in liver-fluke eggs. *Ann. Bot.*, 7 : 313-321.
- DACKMAN, C., CHET, I. & NORDBRING-HERTZ, B. (1989). Fungal parasitism of the cyst nematode *Heterodera schachtii* : Infection and enzymatic activity. *Federation of European microbiological Societies : Microbiology-Ecology*, 62 : 201-208.
- ESSER, R. P. & RIDINGS, W. H. (1973). Pathogenicity of selected nematodes by *Catenaria anguillulae*. *Proc. Soil Crop Sc. Soc. Fla.*, 33 : 60-64.
- ESSER, R. P. & SCHUBERT, T. S. (1983). Fungi that utilize zoospores to parasitize nematodes. *Nematol. Circ.*, 101 : 4 p.
- HASHEM, M. H. (1988). *Untersuchungen zur Wirtsspezifität und zum Entwicklungszyklus endoparasitärer Nematodenpilze an beweglichen Nematoden*. Dissertation, Universität Kiel, 168 p.
- HUETTEL, R. N. & REBOIS, R. V. (1985). Culturing plant parasitic nematodes using root explants. In : Zuckerman, B. M., Mai, W. F. & Harrison, M. B. (Eds). *Plant Nematology Laboratory Manual*. University of Massachusetts, Agricultural Experiment Station, Amherst : 155-158.
- JAFFEE, B. A. (1986). Parasitism of *Xiphinema rivesi* and *X. americanum* by zoospore fungi. *J. Nematol.*, 18 : 87-93.
- MACHLIS, L. (1953). Growth and nutrition of water molds in the subgenus *Euallomyces* I : Growth factor requirements. *Am. J. Bot.*, 40 : 189-195.
- MANAVATHU, E. K. & THOMAS, D. D. (1985). Chemotropism of *Achlya ambisexualis* to methionine and methionyl compounds. *J. gen. Microbiol.*, 131 : 751-756.
- MARTIN, W. W. (1975). A new species of *Catenaria* parasitic in midge eggs. *Mycologia*, 67 : 264-272.
- MARTIN, W. W. (1978). Two additional species of *Catenaria* (Chytridiomycetes, Blastocladales) parasitic in midge eggs. *Mycologia*, 70 : 461-467.
- MITCHELL, R. T. & DEACON, J. W. (1986). Chemotropism of germ tubes from zoospore cysts of *Pythium* spp. *Trans. Brit. mycol. Soc.*, 86 : 233-237.
- PERRY, R. N. (1989). Dormancy and hatching of nematode eggs. *Parasitology Today*, 5 : 377-383.
- SAYRE, R. M. & KEELEY, L. S. (1969). Factors influencing *Catenaria anguillulae* infections in a free-living and plant-parasitic nematode. *Nematologica*, 15 : 492-502.
- STIERLING, A. M. & PLATZER, E. G. (1978). *Catenaria anguillulae* in the mermithid nematode *Romanomermis culicivorax*. *J. Invert. Path.*, 32 : 348-354.
- THOMAS, D. D. & PETERSON, A. F. (1990). Chemotactic auto-aggregation in the water mould *Achlya*. *J. gen. Microbiol.*, 136 : 847-853.
- TRIBE, H. T. (1977). Pathology of cyst-nematodes. *Biol. Rev.*, 52 : 477-507.
- ULKEN, A. (1977). Phycomyceten auf der Laguna Mandinga, Veracruz, Mexico. *Veröffentlichungen des Instituts für Meeresforschung Bremerhaven*, 16 : 177-189.
- VOSS, B. (1988). *Eignung des fakultativen endoparasitären Pilzes Catenaria anguillulae Sorokin zur Bekämpfung pflanzenparasitärer Nematoden*. Dissertation, Universität Kiel, 127 p.
- VOSS, B. & WYSS, U. (1990). Variation between strains of the nematophagous endoparasitic fungus *Catenaria anguillulae* Sorokin. I. Factors affecting parasitism in vitro. *Z. PflKrankh. PflSchutz*, 97 : 416-430.
- WYSS, U. & ZUNKE, U. (1986). The potential of high resolution video-enhanced contrast microscopy in nematological research. *Revue Nématol.*, 9 : 91-94.